KOREAN PARENTAL THOUGHTS AND PRACTICES ABOUT THEIR CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

Heekyung Han: Korean Parental Thoughts and Practices about Their Children's Language Development
(Under the direction of Barbara Day)

This study examined parental thoughts about and practices related to their children's language development in Korean-American communities, specifically Korean language schools and a Korean church. Forty-three Korean immigrant parents with a U.S.-born child aged 3 to 7 participated in a survey. The respondents were divided into two groups by their children's dominant language spoken at home: parents with a Korean-dominant child and parents with an English-dominant child. Results showed that the two groups of parents have significantly different thoughts about their children's English-language development. In terms of parents' reported practices, there were significant differences between the two groups of parents concerning their children's Korean- and English-language development. In addition, the parents with a Korean-dominant child were more inclined to value and support their mother tongue's development and showed a positive relationship between their thoughts and reported practices. Limitations of the study and implications for parents are discussed.

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OVERVIEW

Although many studies have examined children's language development and have come to numerous conclusions about how children develop their language, an integrated view is possible that includes both an 'innate' learning capacity and a variety of interactive experiences with surrounding environments (Narra, 2005). Parents play an essential role in this process, especially for young children who have much time with their parents at home. Young children are particularly parent-dependent for learning activities as they have not yet developed a clear value system (Benett, Weigel & Martin, 2002).

In early-language or literacy education, studies have shown that parents' decisions, behaviors, and practices vary according to their attitudes, beliefs, and values. In addition, both parental thoughts and actions may be important indicators of their children's achievement (Galper, Wigfield & Seefeldt, 1997; Senechal & LeFevre, 2002; Stipek, Milburn, Clements & Daniels, 1992). Therefore, even though a child has individual characteristics and rate of language development, efficient development of language may depend on the parental environment.

Recent studies have explored the language learning and development of English Language Learners (ELLs); that is, children who develop English as a second language. The numbers of such learners is increasing in the United States. Some studies have indicated that parental attitudes toward the dominant language and culture are important factors, not only for a

second language but for other educational tasks as well (Curran, Martinez, Greenstein & Diaz, 2005; Shin, 2005). In addition, second-language development in children is involved with learning or maintaining the first language or mother tongue. For example, a study conducted with Chinese parents showed that the majority of parents wanted their children to be balanced bilinguals and supported their children's efforts to learn two languages by sending them to a Chinese-English bilingual school (Lao, 2004).

Koreans in the United States

According to the most recent available data, there are 864,125 Korean immigrants in the United States; they rank fifth among Asian populations in the U.S. after Chinese, Filipino, Indian, and Vietnamese immigrants (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Among the present Korean population, more than two-thirds have arrived since 1970s; they are mostly young, well-educated, and affluent. This is a different set of characteristics from earlier immigrants, who were mostly old, illiterate, and lower-class (Jo, 1999).

Many Koreans have moved to the U.S. to earn undergraduate and graduate degrees and to begin their careers. A growing number of Korean immigrants remain in the U.S. for their children's education, even though their original plan was to stay temporarily. There is also a recent trend in Korea of moving to the U.S. to provide a better educational environment for children (Hurh, 1998; Jo, 1999). Korean parents seek better educational opportunities overseas, particularly in the U.S., for several reasons. First, they are not satisfied with the Korean educational system, which focuses on rote learning and memorization. Second, since most Koreans believe that attending a first-rate university is the foundation for a successful life both socially and economically, competition for admissions is extreme. Children and

parents in Korea are therefore under tremendous physical, psychological, emotional, and financial stress. Third, the popularity of English as a second language in Korea is rising rapidly, because English proficiency is required at most universities and for most employment examinations.

While raising children in the U.S., Korean immigrant parents encounter the issue of their children's preference for English over Korean, their mother tongue. As a child chooses English as the primary language, parents who have limited English proficiency may not understand what their children say. Also, because Korean is often written in Chinese characters and the two languages have many similarities, a child may not naturally learn specific words or phrases that are familiar to parents. When Korean parents quote Korean proverbs in Korean, for example, even on a day-to-day basis, misunderstandings and miscommunications may occur. As Li's study (1999) showed, the parents who use the minority-language may interact less with their children who prefer English because of parents' deficient abilities in the second language.

On the other hand, in spite of the possibility of problems, some Korean parents show positive or at least neutral attitudes toward their children's language preference for and quick acquisition of English. Some parents decide to use English as the dominant language at home. The shift to English can be caused by several factors (Shin, 2005). They may think that English proficiency is directly related to academic and social success, so they give their children enthusiastic support by using English themselves. Or they may be following the advice of teachers, doctors, or speech therapists who say that using the parents' native language at home impedes the children's learning English and adapting to school. Ultimately, both parents and their children may think that the majority of English speakers devalue

Korean, as a minority language (Fishman, 1989). In any case, the loss of the mother tongue is increased with the shift to English.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine how Korean parents perceive the importance of their U.S.-born children's first- and second-language use and support of these languages. The current study addressed this issue by exploring the differences of the parental thoughts and practices concerning their children's language development. It focused on two groups of parents divided by their children's dominant language spoken at home: parents with a Korean-dominant child and parents with an English-dominant child.

Research Questions

Three research questions were culled from a literature review and conceptual framework.

1) Are there significant differences among parental thoughts about their children's language development, depending on their children's dominant language?
2) Are there significant differences in parents' reported practices concerning their children's language development in relation to their children's dominant language?
3) Does a relationship exist between parental thoughts and their reported practices concerning their children's language development within each of the two groups of parents?

CHAPTER Ⅱ

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the study, it was assumed that parents show different practices according to their own thoughts about their children's Korean- and English-language development, and their children's dominant language is involved with parents' thoughts and practices. Therefore, this literature review focuses on how children develop their language(s) within their home environment.

Language Development

Theories. How a child learns and develops a language has been extensively explored theoretically. The heart of matter is whether language is developed by nature or nurture. According to nativism theorists such as Chomsky, a child is genetically predisposed to learn language after birth; in other words, language development is an innate capacity of human beings. By contrast, empiricism theorists like Piaget and Vygotsky claim that knowledge acquisition, including language, happens through a variety of interactive experiences with a child's surrounding environment. Still other theorists indicate that language development should be understood within an integrated view that reflects both nativism and empiricism (Narra, 2005).

According to Chomsky (1968), the mechanism of language acquisition formulation is elemental; most children can acquire language simply by being exposed to a linguistic environment regardless of their intelligence, motivation, or emotional state. People have an

inherent structure that causes them to acquire language, the language acquisition device (LAD). The ability to develop language, therefore, is thought to be genetically determined (Elliot, 1981).

Chomsky's theory is based on the observation that all languages consist of surface structures and deep structures. Surface structures are sounds and words, and deep structures are the meaning imparted by the sounds and words. While the surface structures of languages may vary hugely, there are commonalities in their deep structures. By a transformation that is conducted according to an ordered set of rules, deep meaning is converted to a surface structure. This theory assumes that, at birth, children possess inherent knowledge of the principles of the grammatical structure of all human languages—an assumption that explains the success and speed of language learning. Chomsky also posits that language learning, similarly to other types of physical development, takes place at a predetermined, critical age, and that all children go through the same stages of language development, regardless of the language they are learning.

Process. Pragmatically, Gordon & Williams-Browne (2000) presented six stages of language development spanning infancy to preschool age. First, all environmental sounds become the foundation of linguistic development; in particular, infants start to pay attention to people's speech, accents, and sound changes. Next, they begin cooing and babbling at 3-4 months and reach the summit by 9 to 12 months, but such vocalization is part of their physical maturation rather than the result of conscious experience or practice. As vocalization proceeds, infants can gradually distinguish words from simple, meaningless sounds. While developing this ability, they experiment to find what sounds they can make. Then they begin to speak, at first in a limited number of words. Most infants comprehend

what a word means before they are able to say it. They name things that are relevant to them, but sometimes overgeneralize the meaning. For example, when an infant says “bye,” it can mean someone leaving or the act of closing a door.

Around age 2, children begin to form sentences of two or more words that reveal behaviors, possession, or locations. At this stage, language usage usually accompanies acts; for example, an extended hand and the words “Give me.” Gradually they can add adjectives, change verb tense, and use infinitives. In general, grammatical rules are acquired by listening to and integrating other people’s speech patterns; children refine language structures by imitating what they have heard. In this period, children understand more conversation than what they can produce, but they want to communicate with others and actively express themselves.

At age 3 or 4, children develop and elaborate vocabularies with surprising speed. The sentences they use become longer and include description, narration, explanation, and conversation. They avidly, continuously ask questions and may often converse with an imaginary friend; however, interest in real friends usually replaces this activity. Through real social interactions, children learn how to ask questions and receive answers, as well as how to prolong conversations and how to give and take instructions. They also begin to enjoy singing songs and reading or listening to books. At age 5, most children can recognize letters and know that verbal language is convertible into written language. They enjoy playing with words, making stories or songs, and dictating the contents of their drawings to adults. They can quote or repeat phrases or sentences from their favorite books and stories.

Parental Input. Studies have indicated that, along with exposure to a linguistic environment at the critical age, children’s early language acquisition is affected by adult input. Because most children are physically connected with their parents from birth until

they begin school, parental influence is key during the preschool years (Barrett, Harris, & Chasin, 1992; Huttenlocher, Haight, Byrk, Seltzer, & Lyons, 1991). Vygotsky (1986) found that parents or other adults can help children develop language and literacy skills by scaffolding the children in their "Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)." Both frequency and/or amount of input are critical to children's language acquisition; according to the shape of input, children could learn their language with showing different phases. Young children are more likely to use the words frequently heard from their mothers (Barrett, Harris & Chasin, 1992). Huttenlocher et al. (1991) found that children's vocabulary size is directly related to the amounts of words their mothers speak to them.

Snow (1995) found that child-directed speech of parents significantly contributed to young children's language development. Since child-directed speech tended to be slower, simpler, and more carefully enunciated, children could pay more attention to it than to adult-directed speech they overhear while engaged in other activities.

Joint book-reading among parents and children has been shown to be particularly important for early language and literacy development (Burgess, 1997; Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998; Payne, Whitehurst & Angell, 1994; Senechal, LeFevre, Thomas & Daley, 1998). During the process of reading aloud, parents can promote their children's oral language development and literacy skills through scaffolding activities such as asking their children to repeat words, use new linguistic forms, and predict context. Bus, van Ijzendoorn, and Pellegrini (1995) found a positive association between the frequency of joint book reading and children's literacy and language outcomes.

Such parental or maternal inputs also impact bilingual children's language learning, as with monolingual children, even though the bilingual children perceive inputs differently

depending on interlocutors, places, and situations (De Houwer, 1995). Regardless of the language, various parental inputs play an essential role in the language development of young children.

Bilinguals

Valdes and Figueroa (1994) classified bilingual individuals by five dimensions: (1) age of acquisition; (2) ability to use incipient, receptive, and productive language; (3) balance of the two languages; (4) language development; and (5) contexts of acquisition and use of each language. Bilinguals were divided into two groups, elective and circumstantial, depending on the purpose of language acquisition. Whereas elective bilinguals choose a language to learn, for a variety of reasons, circumstantial bilinguals learn a second language to survive as minority language speakers.

Baker (2006) first described a balanced bilingual as someone who is approximately equally fluent in two languages across various contexts. In the "fractional" view of Grosjean (1994), a bilingual combines two monolinguals in one body; therefore, dual-language proficiency is expected to be comparable to that of a monolingual. Lack of fluency in both languages, especially the majority language, may brand the speaker as inferior. For example, immigrant children in the U.S. are often officially negatively labeled as displaying Limited English Proficiency (LEP). However, Grosjean indicated that this view is not only problematic but also unrealistic, because bilinguals typically use their two languages depending on different situations and people, as Fishman (1971) stated.

Grosjean (1994) emphasized a holistic view of the individual bilingual as not the sum of two monolinguals but rather as a unique linguistic character. He stressed that it is unjust to

compare the language competence of a bilingual with a monolingual simply by the traditional tests focusing on grammatical accuracy or communicative skills, arguing that the evaluation of language competence should be based on the bilingual's language usage across all domains. Because bilinguals may show different levels of competence in each language depending on previous experiences or contexts, Cook (1992) asserted that an assessment should be conducted to evaluate multiple competencies.

Social environment also influences bilinguals' language attitudes and preferences. According to the evidence, while an older person may prefer to speak the minority language, the younger person may reject it due to a perception that the majority language is of higher status and more fashionable. Li, Milroy, and Pon (1992) indicated that individuals within a Chinese community in northern England chose language depending on the degree of contact with the majority: Chinese speakers who mainly interacted with English speakers tended to choose English more often than other Chinese who worked in family businesses where they had less contact with English speakers.

Bilinguals may change their languages, either wittingly or unwittingly, to build good relationships with listeners through efficient communication. It is natural and expected that such bilinguals use the majority language to gain acceptance or status and use the minority language to belong to their social and cultural groups (Baker, 2006).

Previous Research

Some researchers have discussed the relationship between parental beliefs, thoughts, or values and their practices or behaviors. Curran et al. (2005) asked parents in Santiago, Chile to identify their beliefs regarding the importance of English and Spanish, both of which were

used in their community. Most parents believed that equal input is needed in both languages for their children to be English-Spanish bilingual. Even though it seemed difficult to provide children with balanced language input, parents used a variety of strategies. They spoke or read to children in the non-dominant language, traveled to English-speaking countries, provided school environments where both languages were supported, and attempted to discourage code-mixing by their children. Dopke (1988) found that children of German families in Australia grew up English-monolingual according to their parents' belief that bilingualism is indicative of failure. In Harrison and Piette's study (1980), when English-Welsh bilingual mothers in Wales displayed negative attitudes toward their children's bilingualism, most of their children did not become bilingual.

Nonetheless, some studies have indicated that not every positive attitude, belief, or desire can be translated into actual practices (Schecter & Bayley, 1997; Lao, 2004). In Lao's study that examined parental attitudes toward Chinese-English bilingual education, the majority of parents wanted to promote their children's Chinese use at home but could not do so because they had limited proficiencies in Chinese themselves. Similarly, in Shin's (2005) study that investigated Korean parents' perceptions or attitudes about their children's bilingualism, most parents wanted their children to be balanced Korean-English bilinguals. Nevertheless, these parents reported that they taught and read more to their children in English than Korean. The author concluded that such a discrepancy between expectations and practices could be due to a lack of Korean materials or the lesser relevance of Korean language to children's school performance in an English-dominant society.

Some studies have shown an association between parental beliefs and/or practices and their child's achievement. The results of a study with parents and children in a Head Start

program supported a connection between parental beliefs and their children's academic achievement (Galper, Wigfield & Seefeldt, 1997). Parents' beliefs about specific tasks and their children's actual performance played a significant role in predicting their children's achievement in math and reading tasks. A five-year longitudinal study that examined the effect of parental involvement on their children's reading showed a positive relationship between parents' practices and children's achievement (Senechal & LeFevre, 2002). According to these findings, children who were taught reading and writing by their parents tended to exhibit advanced early literacy skills that were shown to have impacted the children's reading ability at the end of first grade. The study that examined the link between the home literacy environment and young children's literacy skills suggested that parental interest in their children's acquisition of linguistic skills, through literacy activities and joint book reading, strongly affected language outcomes (Bennett, Weigel & Martin, 2002).

Conceptual Framework

As social beings, people develop language both innately and empirically through social interactions with others as well as through individual maturation and cognitive processes. As a conceptual framework of young children's learning and development, Piaget's cognitive theory, Vygotsky's sociocognitive theory, and Bandura's social learning theory are reviewed here, as well as their applicability to the proposed study.

Piaget's Cognitive Theory. Jean Piaget, who was interested in how children think, reason, and perceive the world in a qualitative way, particularly how children learn in their environment, believed that the process of learning starts even before language with the construction of "schemes," which he viewed as a kind of "instrument generalization" and

"what there is in common among several different and analogous actions" (Evans, 1973, p. 18). He emphasized that a child, as an active being, interacts with his environment not just by receiving nature passively, as an organism changes its body to adapt to circumstances. Instead, through a variety of activities and experiences, a child constructs changes and reshapes his own schemes; that is, the child learns interactively, by developing his own schemes in relationship with his environment.

According to Piaget, growth and development are regulated by four factors. First and most important is the innate process of physical maturation, whereby a child begins to learn different things and perceives something he already experienced in a different way. Second is physical experience, by which a child can construct new concepts. Piaget asserted that children have different experiences depending on their surrounding environment; for example, a child who lives near a farm may learn about cows whereas a child in a coastal village becomes familiar with aquatic life. Third is social experience gained by interacting with others. All people, including parents, siblings, peers, teachers, and community members, will give a child stimulation to form new schemes. As a child realizes the difference between his experiences and those of other people, he may want to express them through performance, or practice.

The final factor, equilibration, is a repetitive, integrated internal process of adapting to the environment through assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation describes how new information is fit into present ways of understanding; for example, a child who has a scheme that objects float on the water tries to float various kinds of things. Accommodation is the process by which cognitive structures are altered to fit the new experience; for example, the child who becomes puzzled when he sees a stone sink may change his previous concept and

reshape it: some objects can float and others cannot. This revision of scheme is called equilibration, the process of moving from one state of thought to the next to maintain cognitive balance. Piaget believed that cognitive development depends on reciprocal interactions among these four factors.

Piaget claimed that cognitive development precedes language development. In other words, language depends on thoughts for its development as a cognitive and perceptual process and follows a similar sequence of developmental stages, regardless of the language. Piaget (1959) divides the functions of child language into two large groups: egocentric and social. Because young children view themselves as the center of the universe and think that everything occurs solely for their pleasure, they engage in egocentric speech. Piaget distinguishes three types of egocentric speech: repetition, individual monologue, and collective monologue. In repetition, the child repeats words and syllables for the pleasure of talking. In individual monologue, the child talks to himself as if thinking aloud, and expresses thoughts without concern for listeners. In collective monologue, each child presents a personal idea and does not expect others to understand or respond. As defined by Piaget, social speech is composed of five categories: adapted information, criticism, commands, requests and threats, and questions and answers. In social speech, a child tries to see other people's points of view.

Piaget suggested four qualitative stages of development: sensorimotor, from birth to age 2; preoperational, from ages 2 to 7; concrete operational, from ages 7 to 11; and formal operational, at the age of 11 or older. In his view, every child acquires simple-to-complex cognitive abilities and experiences in the same stages, in the same order, but at different rates. At each stage, children show unique characteristics that change developmentally in the areas of play, language, space, time, and number. In the preoperational stage particularly, children

form ideas based on their perceptions and acquire language. In the "age of curiosity," children always ask for explanations about what is unfamiliar to them.

Piaget emphasized the centrality of play in the development of intelligence. According to him, a child engages in different types of play from birth on. In play, language is recognized as an essential interactive tool for choosing and discussing roles, props, and rules. Thus, through spontaneous comments during play, children show what and how they think and understand. Piaget also asserted that meaningful learning is a result of individual reflection and that reinforcement comes from a child's inner thought, not from an external environment. Therefore, a child can show a different rate of learning in a certain area depending on motivation or emotional state. In addition, Piaget defined learning as a process of self-regulation that contributes to a child's understanding of the relationships among variables of a specific concept. Curiosity and motivation enable children to learn by constructing schemes, and disequilibrium between new challenging experiences and previously acquired experiences causes them to reshape concepts more realistically.

In this study, Piaget's views help interpret children's linguistic experiences and arranged educational environments conducive to their language acquisition and learning. Piaget claimed that a child can develop personal schemes while exploring the surrounding environment(s). A child can learn language through language-related experiences or in a linguistic environment. For young children, who are close with their parents, such linguistic experiences and environment are mostly provided by the parents. Parents' values, beliefs, and attitudes influence the learning environment; that is, children may be provided with different linguistic experiences and materials, according to how parents perceive the importance of language development (Curran, Martinez, Greenstein & Diaz, 2005; Stipek,

Milburn, Clements & Daniels, 1992). Thus, children in the preoperational stage explore the world for themselves with intense curiosity, as scientists. In turn, children may be significantly affected by natural exposure to certain circumstances. Therefore, parental inputs according to their thoughts or beliefs may play an important role in their children's language acquisition and development. In the current study, it is assumed that children's dominant language achievement is influenced by their parents' thoughts and practices.

In addition, Piaget demonstrated that meaningful learning is a result of a child's inner thoughts. According to how parents respond to their children's language use, children may have different motivation about using a particular language. For example, if a mother speaks Korean slowly, accurately, and repeatedly to an English-dominant child, with concern for his or her understanding, the child may become more highly motivated to use the Korean language than children whose parents did not express such concern.

Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory. Vygotsky, who asserted that development is primarily driven by historical, cultural, and social factors, argued that language is the most important symbolic tool in society—a theory that has changed educators' thoughts about children's interactions with others. Just as social and cognitive development work together, personal and social experience cannot be separated. If they consistently interact with other people, children learn a world shaped by their families, communities, socioeconomic status, education, and culture. Therefore, the values and beliefs of others are uniquely influential factors in children's lives. Vygotsky emphasized that peers with advanced skills, as well as adults, can help young children with learning (Mooney, 2000).

One of his most important concepts is the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which involves two levels: the actual developmental level at which children can perform tasks

without assistance, and the potential developmental level that they can accomplish with help from adults and more-skilled peers. The potential of cognitive development is limited to this range, or ZPD, i.e. the distance between these two levels (Maddux, Johnson & Willis, 1997). Furthermore, ZPD can be changed by social interactions, so adults' roles in children's education are important.

The assistance of a teacher or peer is offered to children through scaffolding, a necessity-based, temporary kind of interaction in which adults and/or peers encourage a child to reach new concepts by giving supporting information. The more skilled the learner becomes, the less support is needed. Vygotsky also considered the roles of cognitive apprenticeships and guided participation in children's learning. Apprenticeships begin with a model behavior followed by supports that are decreased or eliminated when children can learn independently. Guidance refers to the "direction offered by cultural and social values, as well as social partners" (Rogoff, 1995, p. 142). Teaching interactions manifest through participation in a culturally valued activity.

Vygotsky also believed that adults should observe children carefully in order to understand their ZPD and scaffold well as well as to determine children's current and potential abilities and provide support depending on children's individual needs in a social context. Curriculum planning would perhaps be most strongly affected by such observations. Adults, especially parents or teachers, need to provide children with a variety of interactions, conversations, and experimentations to increase their skills and accomplishments; through these interactions, children will learn both process and content.

Vygotsky emphasized the importance of language as a tool both of communication and socialization and believed, like Piaget, that much learning and language usage occur during

play. Not only do children develop new concepts or skills as they speak and listen to each other, they determine the conditions (e.g. roles, objects, and directions of play) through conversation, as they correct each other and share ideas or emotions. These interactions, Vygotsky believed, contribute to children's construction of knowledge and learning. He also felt that although children may first use language to communicate with other people, after they acquire language they use inner speech as well. Such private speech contributes to children's learning by helping them control their own thoughts and behaviors (Langford, 2005).

Vygotsky (1986) indicated that children's innate desire for love and care from other people stimulates them to develop language. While trying to understand their world, children seek appropriate linguistic patterns and build vocabularies. Bordrova and Leong (1996) described Vygotsky's theory of language acquisition based on four beliefs: (1) children construct their cognition; (2) development cannot be separated from social context; (3) learning precedes development; and (4) language plays an essential role in children's mental development.

The current study adopts Vygotsky's perspective to examine the importance of both American and Korean social and cultural contexts in relation to Korean immigrant parents and their children. For example, while these children may watch Korean TV programs and eat Korean foods at home, they may also follow norms of their American peers. As children become Americanized faster than their parents expect, problems such as miscommunications or lack of closeness will occur between them (Shin, 2005). Consequently, how parents respond according to their beliefs or values will affect their children. For instance, an English-dominant child may be encouraged to use Korean language as the parents explain

Korean words, read books in Korean, and translate English into Korean slowly and accurately.

In addition, parents' perceptions of the importance of the two languages determine the significance of the support or scaffolding given to children in each language, during which parents are also crucially involved with their children's ZPD. For example, a Korean mother who values her mother tongue will provide much support for her child to develop the Korean language and will consider both the child's actual and expected ability as she does so. Relationships between children and people outside the family, including peers and teachers, will also be influenced by parental values and beliefs; for example, parents who value Korean language may provide opportunities for their children to interact with Korean-speaking peers.

Bandura's Social Learning Theory. Bandura (1986), believing that children are not simply or automatically influenced by either inner forces or external stimuli, explained their development in terms of a triadic reciprocal model which holds that behavioral, cognitive, and other factors, both personal and environmental, interact mutually and variably. The most important precept of this theory is that children can learn incidentally through observation and imitation by four constituent processes: attentive, retentive, productive, and motivational.

During attention, children perceive the relevant aspects of modeled activities, including observation of the complexity, prevalence, and functional value of a modeled event. Therefore, children are inclined to attend more carefully to someone who is attractive, competent, and similar to them. During retention, transitory experiences are coded as symbolic concepts to memorize in order to guide and regulate standards for future responses. Children may not be greatly influenced by the observation of modeled activities if they do

not remember them. The inner process of symbolization enables children to maintain their experiences in permanent memory; furthermore, they may extend their memories, thereby enabling themselves to learn more than what was observed. However, memorization of modeled activities should be accompanied by carrying out the activity for maximally effective learning.

During production, children may perform well after repeated practice and feedback from models. As they observe, remember, and compare their own perceptions and behaviors with modeled activities, children need to correct their actions. That is, children can achieve the modeled behavior based on their conception of the activity while organizing responses temporally. During motivation, which refers to the central desire of children to perform what they have learned, it is determined whether or not children are using their acquired knowledge. Even when a child has sufficient competence to implement a specific behavior, action may not occur without motivation. Motivation, therefore, is activation to action. The level of motivation is reflected in a child's choice of courses of action, and in the intensity and persistence of effort (Bandura, 1994). For example, a child who does not have sufficient motivation to solve math problems may not address them fully or enthusiastically.

Bandura used the term "self-efficacy" to refer to people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives; children, for example, are not motivated to do things if they do not believe they can. Motivation therefore directly influences behavior and also mediates the effects of behavioral determinants. Self-efficacy is driven by four sources. First is the influence of previous performance and experience, which contribute to children's self-efficacy through the informational cognitive process. For example, a child who has been praised in painting may

have high beliefs about his or her capability to draw. Second is vicarious experience of the effects produced by somebody else's actions. When children observe the results of other people's actions, they may desire the same consequences and thus be motivated to replicate the actions. Third is individual perceptions about one's abilities, which are affected by social persuasions or judgments from others. The effectiveness of this factor is dependent on the position, specificity, authority, and authenticity of other people. Fourth are somatic and emotional states such as anxiety, stress, depression, or fear; for example, a child with less self-efficacy about testing is more likely to receive a low score, which may in turn contribute to stress and depression.

This study applies Bandura's perspectives by emphasizing parents' roles as models; for example, parents can model desired behaviors for their children by using the more valued language at home. Because children, especially preschoolers, depend on their parents for emotional, physical, and financial support, they may observe and attend to their parents' behaviors more closely than those of other adults. Thus, parental reinforcement determines how children organize their own concepts of an activity, and parental attitudes and values about Korean and English language may influence both children's motivation and self-efficacy for using these languages. For example, when parents give priority to English and speak it at home, their child may perceive the importance of English while observing and imitating their speech. Furthermore, if a child receives a positive parental response or reward for saying a full sentence in English correctly and accurately, that child's motivation to use English may increase, with the result that he or she will speak English more.

Over time, other people such as peers or siblings will serve as role models in addition to parents; for instance, a child who experienced peer rejection for using Korean in class may

start to devalue that language. Therefore, it is critical to examine how Korean parents recognize the importance of language(s), support language development generally, and provide a rich linguistic environment at home.

Summary of Theories. These theories set the direction for the current study of parental thoughts and practices regarding their children's language development in a Korean-American community. First, Piaget's theory illustrates how a child learns in the surrounding environment, as an active scientist creating schemes with much curiosity through various physical and social experiences. The process of equilibration, which consists of assimilation and accommodation, reveals how a child interacts with a specific environment. Additionally, a child is influenced by motivation or emotional status during development. Piaget emphasized the critical role of language when interacting with other people and understanding environments.

Vygotsky's theory focuses on historical, cultural, and social factors in a child's learning and development; in other words, a child knows his or her world by interacting with other people continuously in his or her community. Vygotsky suggests that parents, teachers, and even more-skilled peers can enlarge a child's zone of proximal development (ZPD), defined as the distance between potential and actual development levels. While a child is mentally developing, language plays an essential role in communication and socialization. Because language is produced by the people in the child's community, a child becomes familiar with the community's cultural factors during language acquisition.

Bandura's theory places child development within a triadic reciprocal model, in which three factors—person, behaviors, and environment—are mutually intertwined. It emphasizes

that children can learn vicariously while observing and imitating models. Although a child with strong self-efficacy can learn more than a child who underestimates his or her ability to take on a task, self-efficacy can be changed by a number of aspects, including direct or indirect experiences, social judgments, and emotional factors such as stress or depression.

A child needs a variety of forms of language education including materials, activities, and teachers, as well as social supports for developing language skills both within and outside the home. For example, a Korean-American child may develop Korean language through reading Korean books, interacting with Korean people, and imitating Korean utterances in the community. In addition, immigrant parents may also change or develop their thoughts, beliefs, or values about a language as they interact with their new community and world. Such modified thoughts and behaviors will contribute to children's development consistently. Therefore, this study's analysis of the relationship between parents' thoughts and practices about their children's language development and their children's primary language use is valuable for people who work with children from a variety of linguistic or cultural backgrounds as well as for immigrant families.

CHAPTER Ⅲ

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was designed to examine parental thoughts and practices about their children's language development in a Korean-American community. Quantitative methodology that concentrates on "showing how the numbers come to tell us what the facts are by measuring and counting data" (Sirkin, 2006, p. 34) was used. The survey instrument was developed by the researcher based on a literature review and conceptual framework, with advice from a methodologist and a teaching assistant in statistics. Before the actual study, a pilot study was conducted with four mothers, two with a child who uses Korean dominantly and two with a child who uses English as the primary language at home. The survey questionnaire was further modified based on comments from the pilot-study participants. For example, a mother reported that her child's dominant language at home is Korean at home and English elsewhere. Therefore, dominant-language use was divided into two parts: at home and outside of the home.

More than 60 survey questionnaires were distributed to Korean parents. Forty-six responses (74%) were returned; 3 that described a Korean-born child were excluded. Ultimately, 43 volunteer parents with a U.S.-born child between the ages of 3 and 7 participated in the study.

The Site

Participants were drawn from two Korean language schools and one Sunday school of a Korean church in central North Carolina. The Korean-language schools, which meet on Saturdays, provide 2- or 3-hour classes that include special activities such as cooking, dancing, or Taekwondo. Students at Korean-language schools are grouped into 7 or 8 classes, depending on their chronological age and Korean-language proficiency. For example, a first-grade child who cannot read Korean characters at all would be placed with younger children who have a comparable level of Korean-language ability. When addressing second-generation children, teachers use a mix of Korean and English.

Four main subgroups were found in the Korean church Sunday school: Korean college students studying abroad; immigrant families, with children in middle school and higher, who have lived in the U.S. for more than 15 years and have their own business or professional jobs; more recently married couples with U.S.-born children; and retired seniors who came from Korea to live with their children's families. All of the participants from the church were included in the third group (recently married couples with younger children). In the Sunday school, children were divided into two groups, preschoolers and school-aged, by chronological age only. During worship, the teachers used only English with the second-generation Korean children.

Participants

Eleven fathers and 32 mothers were surveyed about their thoughts and practices regarding their children's Korean- and English-language development. About half of the participants' children were boys (Table 1).

Table 1. Child's Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	21	48.8	48.8	48.8
	female	22	51.2	51.2	100.0
	Total	43	100.0	100.0	

The average age of the respondents was 35 years and that of their children was 4 years, 9 months (57 months). Interestingly, respondents' children who use English dominantly at home showed a higher mean age than Korean-dominant children, as shown in Table 3.

Table 2. Age of Parents and Their Children

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Parent's age	43	18	29	47	35.28	3.686
Child's age (month)	43	58	36	94	57.44	14.383
Valid N	43					

Table 3. Child's Age (in months) Depending on the Dominant Language Spoken at Home

Child's dominant language spoken at home	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Korean	21	53	37	90	51.67	11.821
English	22	58	36	94	62.95	14.679

All respondents had at least a college degree; the yearly annual income of more than three-fourths (74.4 %) was $40,000 or higher. The participants were relatively well educated and affluent, similar to the characteristics of recent Korean immigrants in Shin's study (2005). Nineteen parents reported a length of residency between 6 and 8 years and 11 respondents have lived for more than 11 years in the U.S. (Table 4).

Table 4. Parent's Length of U.S. Residency

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
3 to 5 years	9	20.9	20.9	20.9
6 to 8 years	19	44.2	44.2	65.1
9 to 11 years	4	9.3	9.3	74.4
More than 11 years	11	25.6	25.6	100.0
Total	43	100.0	100.0	

While the majority of parents reported that Korean is their dominant language spoken at home, 21 children of the respondents were indicated as the Korean-dominant speakers at home. However, outside of the home, more parents and children who primarily use English were reported. Five parents and 6 children were reported as using Korean at home and English outside of the home (Table 5).

Table 5. Dominant Language of Parents and Their Children

	At home		Outside of the home	
	Parent	Child	Parent	Child
Korean	38 (88.4%)	21 (48.8%)	33 (76.7%)	15 (34.9%)
English	5 (11.6%)	22 (51.2%)	10 (23.3%)	28 (65.1%)
Total	43 (100.0%)	43 (100.0%)	43 (100.0%)	43 (100.0%)

Of the sample, 31 children were firstborn and 12 had at least one older sibling. Among the participants' children, about 80% were taking a Korean language class once a week.

Research Instrument

For this study, a research instrument in the form of a survey questionnaire based on a literature review and conceptual framework was constructed by the researcher, a

methodologist, and a statistics teaching assistant. After a pilot study with four mothers, the instrument was revised according to participant comments.

At the top of the survey sheet, the purpose of the study is briefly described and a notice of confidentiality is given. To explore parental thoughts and practices about their children's language development, the instrument was designed in three parts: parental thoughts, parental practices, and demographic information. First, participants were asked to indicate what they think about their children's language development through a Likert-type response set. Sixteen questions are included, eight about Korean-language development and eight about English-language development, on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 represents strong disagreement and 5 represents strong agreement.

Second, parents answered 14 questions about how often they do something for their children's Korean- or English-language development, on a frequency level from 1 to 4 where 1 is "hardly ever" and 4 is "almost always." Last, parents were asked to provide demographic information such as age, gender, dominant language, length of U.S. residency, and so on.

The instrument was first constructed in English and then translated into Korean by the researcher. Two other Korean-English bilinguals proofread the Korean version and translated it back into English in order to ensure maximum reliability and accuracy in both languages. Some words were chosen so that respondents could understand them easily or smoothly according to their cultural or linguistic utterance. Even though the participants in this study were all Koreans, a version in either Korean or English was distributed depending on their language preference.

After collecting data, the scale's internal consistency was examined in four categories: thoughts about Korean-language development, thoughts about English- language development, practices for Korean-language development, and practices for English-language development (questionnaire and scales are provided in Appendix A). In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the 8 items of thoughts about Korean-language development scale was .51. In the thoughts about English-language development scale, the value was .50 for 8 items. Reliability was higher in the scales of parental practices concerning their children's language development. The coefficient value in the practices for Korean-language development scale was .72, and in the practices for English-language development scale it was .67 for all items from 1 to 7. According to Pallant (2005), for scales containing less than ten items, even low Cronbach values (e.g., .5) are often considered reliable. Therefore, in the current study of 43 samples, the scale's internal consistency in each of the four categories can be considered reliable.

Procedures

The study proceeded in three phases: (1) participant recruitment; (2) data collection; and (3) data analysis.

Phase One: Participant Recruitment

To recruit participants for this study, the principals of two Korean-language schools and one Sunday school of a Korean church were first contacted via phone and e-mail. On the appointed day, the principals were provided with information such as the study's purpose, the participants' rights, and the survey questionnaire. At that time, the data collection methods and procedures were discussed in detail. For example, the principals

assigned dates for parents to return questionnaires that coincided with special school events. In addition, they informed parents of the existence a secure room where parents could fill out the surveys, to safeguard participant confidentiality.

Phase Two: Data Collection

With the principals' permission, survey questionnaires were distributed to Korean parents at special events such as seminars for parents. A written consent form that described the study's purpose and the participants' rights in either Korean or English, depending on their language preference, was also provided. While reading the information, parents asked questions about the study. When they submitted signed forms to the researcher, they received either a Korean or English version of the survey questionnaire, in an envelope. Some participants filled out the survey in secure rooms designated by the researcher with the agreement of the principals. Only the researcher collected the completed questionnaires, on site, in the sealed envelopes.

Because of time limitations, some parents filled out the questionnaire at home, individually, and returned the completed questionnaires directly to the researcher the following week, in the sealed envelopes, when they were dropping off or picking up their children.

Phase Three: Data Analysis

Data analyses with statistics software SPSS (Green & Salkind, 2004) was conducted after valid data from the respondents were selected. Among 46 respondents, 3 parents with a Korean-born child were excluded. The 43 samples had no missing items. After typing the collected data with SPSS, double-entry was used by a trained graduate student to ensure accuracy.

Descriptive statistics were computed from the respondents' demographic information. For binary variables such as dominant language and current attendance at a Korean-language class, the percentage of each answer was computed. The coded data were analyzed using mean comparison, standard deviations, and correlations among variables. Since the current study had a very small sample (N=43), and the data were not normally distributed, non-parametric techniques were used for data analysis (Pallant, 2005). To compare the means of two independent samples, the Mann-Whitney U Test was used instead of the parametric, Independent-Samples T Test. For more than three samples, Kruskal-Wallis H Test was used. Finally, the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation (rho) was used to seek a significant relationship between two continuous variables as an alternative to Pearson's product-moment correlation.

First, the scores of parents' thoughts and reported practices regarding their children's Korean or English development per respondent were computed. For parents' thoughts about language development, participant responses (from 1 to 5) were coded so that the higher number received a higher score, except for items 3 and 11, which received a reverse computation (i.e., if a parent checked the number 4 on item 3, it was coded as a 2). A parent who scored high on parental thoughts about Korean-language development was regarded as considering the Korean language more seriously, or as more important, than a parent who scored lower. Parents' reported practices (on a scale from 1 to 4) were computed in the same way: a parent who scored high on parental practices regarding English development was inferred as intending to support the child's English development more than a parent who scored low.

After coding each item's score, the total scores were computed by summing the first

item to the last item within four categories: tot_tho_k, tot_tho_e, tot_pra_k, and tot_pra_e (Appendix B contains a complete explanation). For the first two questions, the compared means and standard deviations of the total scores on parental thoughts and practices concerning their children's Korean or English development were examined in two groups: parents with a Korean-dominant child and parents with an English-dominant child. Last, to plot the initial correlation between parental thoughts and practices related to either Korean or English development, a correlation coefficient was calculated within each group of parents.

Even though it was not hypothesized about other variables in detail, demographic information was coded according to the frequency of each item in order to seek follow-up differences or connections among factors. While analyzing the data, an .05 level of significance was used.

CHAPTER Ⅳ

RESULTS

Research Question 1

"Are there significant differences among parental thoughts about their children's language development, depending on their children's dominant language?"

First, the total scores of thoughts about either Korean- or English-language development were calculated and compared between two groups of parents, depending on their children's dominant language spoken at home. The Mann-Whitney U test showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean ranks of the two groups in parental thoughts about the Korean-language development. However, about English-language development, there was a significant difference between two groups at the significant level of .05 ($z = -2.033$, $p < .05$) as shown in Table 6. On average, parents with an English-dominant child were more inclined to receive high scores concerning their children's English-language development.

Table 6. Mean Ranks and Test Statistics of Parental Thoughts

Ranks

	Child's dominant language spoken at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Total Scores of Thoughts about Korean-Language Development	Korean	21	24.14	507.00
	English	22	19.95	439.00
	Total	43		
Total Scores of Thoughts about English-Language Development	Korean	21	18.05	379.00
	English	22	25.77	567.00
	Total	43		

Test Statistics (a)

	Total Scores of Thoughts about Korean-Language Development	Total Scores of Thoughts about English-Language Development
Mann-Whitney U	186.000	148.000
Wilcoxon W	439.000	379.000
Z	-1.098	-2.033
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.272	.042
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.278	.042
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.139	.021
Point Probability	.003	.001

a. Grouping Variable: Child's dominant language spoken at home

Figure 1. Distributions of Raw Scores of Parental Thoughts

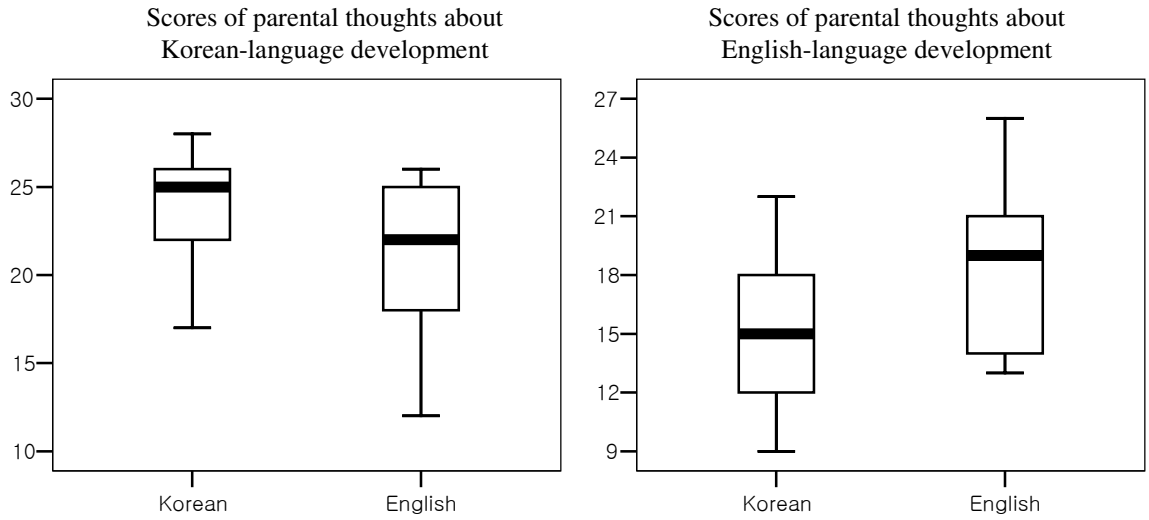


Figure 1 shows the distributions of the raw scores of parental thoughts about their children's Korean- and English-language development, depending on the children's dominant language spoken at home. Interestingly, the mean of total scores about Korean-language development was higher than about English-language development in both groups. Thus, there was no statistically significant difference in the mean ranks of the total scores about Korean-language development between the two groups of parents. Respondents seemed to give more consideration to and place higher value on their children's Korean-language development than their English development, regardless of their child's current dominant language spoken at home.

In the individual items concerning parental thoughts about both Korean- and English-language development, there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups on any item. It was noted that almost all of the parents (more than 95%) expected their child to speak, read, and write as well as native speakers do in both Korean and English, even if their child currently used one language more than the other.

Research Question 2

"Are there significant differences in parents' reported practices concerning their children's language development in relation to their children's dominant language?"

The mean ranks of parental practices for their children's language development for the two groups differed significantly. Table 7 shows the mean ranks and test statistics on the total scores of parental practices for their children's Korean- and English-language development, depending on the children's dominant language spoken at home.

Table 7. Mean Ranks and Test Statistics of Parental Practices

Ranks

	Child's dominant language spoken at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Total Scores of Practices for Korean-Language Development	Korean	21	26.55	557.50
	English	22	17.66	388.50
	Total	43		
Total Scores of Practices for English-Language Development	Korean	21	17.50	367.50
	English	22	26.30	578.50
	Total	43		

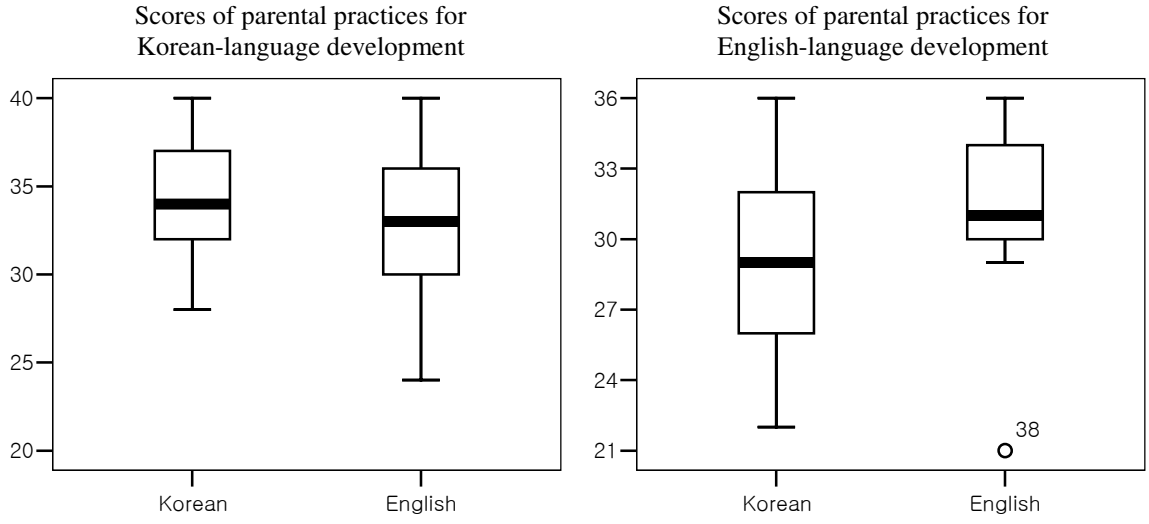
Test Statistics (a)

	Total Scores of Practices for Korean-Language Development	Total Scores of Practices for English-Language Development
Mann-Whitney U	135.500	136.500
Wilcoxon W	388.500	367.500
Z	-2.338	-2.304
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.021
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.020
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.009	.010
Point Probability	.000	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Child's dominant language spoken at home

Concerning their children's Korean-language development parents with a Korean-dominant child averaged higher scores than parents with an English-dominant child. Conversely, concerning their children's English- language development, parents with an English-dominant child tended to provide more practices than the other group. Nevertheless, like the raw scores on parental thoughts about their children's language development, both groups were inclined to report higher scores for Korean-language development than for English-language development (Figure 2). One noteworthy result was that the group of parents with a Korean-dominant child showed much larger differences in their language-dependent practices than the group of parents with an English-dominant child did.

Figure 2. Distributions of the Raw Scores of Parental Practices



The two groups did report different practices on several individual items, at a significant level of .05 using the Exact 2-sided Mann-Whitney Test. According to Table 8, parents with a Korean-dominant child tended to more frequently ask their child to repeat him or herself in Korean when they did not understand their child's Korean language. They were also more

inclined to read books to their child in Korean and encourage their child to use mostly Korean at home. Similarly, parents with an English-dominant child were more inclined to ask their child to repeat him or herself in English and encourage their child to use mostly English at home.

Table 8. Mean Ranks and Test Statistics of Significant Items

Ranks

	Child's dominant language spoken at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in Korean when I do not understand his/her Korean language.	Korean	21	26.12	548.50
	English	22	18.07	397.50
	Total	43		
I read books to my child in Korean.	Korean	21	26.76	562.00
	English	22	17.45	384.00
	Total	43		
I encourage my child to use mostly Korean language at home.	Korean	21	27.76	583.00
	English	22	16.50	363.00
	Total	43		
I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in English when I do not understand his/her English.	Korean	21	17.17	360.50
	English	22	26.61	585.50
	Total	43		
I encourage my child to use mostly English at home.	Korean	21	16.12	338.50
	English	22	27.61	607.50
	Total	43		

Test Statistics (a)

	I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in Korean when I do not understand his/her Korean language.	I read books to my child in Korean.	I encourage my child to use mostly Korean language at home.	I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in English when I do not understand his/her English.	I encourage my child to use mostly English at home.
Mann-Whitney U	144.500	131.000	110.000	129.500	107.500
Wilcoxon W	397.500	384.000	363.000	360.500	338.500
Z	-2.663	-2.594	-3.311	-2.581	-3.373
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.009	.001	.010	.001
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.009	.001	.009	.001
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.004	.005	.000	.005	.000
Point Probability	.003	.001	.000	.000	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Child's dominant language spoken at home

Research Question 3

"Does a relationship exist between parental thoughts and their reported practices concerning their children's language development within each of the two groups of parents?"

The Spearman Correlation Test showed a significant relationship between parental thoughts and reported practices concerning their children's Korean-language development in the group of parents with a Korean-dominant child (Table 9). The total scores of parental thoughts and practices for Korean-language development was positively related at a significant level of .05 (p=.034). The higher the scores about total thoughts, the higher the scores were about total practices related to children's Korean-language development. However, there was no relationship between thoughts and practices concerning English-language development in the group of parents with a Korean-dominant child.

Table 9. Correlations between Parental Thoughts and Practices in the Group of Parents with a Korean-Dominant Child

		Total Scores of Practices for Korean-Language Development	Total Scores of Practices for English-Language Development
Total Scores of Thoughts about Korean-Language Development	Correlation Coefficient	.465(*)	-.411
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.034	.064
	N	21	21
Total Scores of Thoughts about English-Language Development	Correlation Coefficient	.109	.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.638	.890
	N	21	21

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In the group of parents with an English-dominant child, no significant relationship between parental thoughts and reported practices was seen in either the Korean- or English-language development scores. In other words, parents who more strongly recognized the importance of Korean as a mother tongue reported providing their children with more support for learning it. Even though no causation was found between a child's dominant home language and parental thoughts and practices, interestingly, this study shows that such parents were more likely to have a Korean-dominant child. Concerning English-language development, even some parents with a Korean-dominant child who strongly valued the English language reported fewer practices to encourage English use and learning than parents did for Korean-language development. Similarly, most parents with an English-dominant child were less inclined to support their children's Korean-language development with real practices, regardless of their positive attitudes toward their child's learning Korean.

When relationships between individual items about parental thoughts and reported practices were examined, within the group of parents with a Korean-dominant child it was found that some practices were significantly involved with parental thoughts about

development in either language. As shown in Table 10, there was a significantly positive relationship between parents' reading Korean books out loud and parental expectations that their children would read and write Korean as well as native Koreans ($r = .542$, $p < .05$). Parents who believed that their children might forget their Korean language if they do not use it regularly showed the listed practices more significantly in order to encourage their children to mostly use Korean at home ($r = .703$, $p < .05$) and outside of the home ($r = .438$, $p < .05$). However, in the group of parents with a Korean-dominant child there was no relationship between parental thoughts and reported practices concerning their children's English-language development.

Table 10. Correlations among Items of Parental Thoughts and Practices in the Group of Parents with a Korean-Dominant Child

		I read books to my child in Korean.	I encourage my child to use mostly Korean language at home.	I encourage my child to use Korean language when speaking to other Korean people.
I believe my child may forget his/her Korean language if he/she does not use it regularly.	Correlation Coefficient	.321	.703(**)	.438(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.156	.000	.047
	N	21	21	21
I expect my child to read and write Korean language as well as native Korean speakers.	Correlation Coefficient	.542(*)	.000	.416
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	1.000	.061
	N	21	21	21

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In the group of parents with an English-dominant child, however, a significant relationship was found between parental thoughts and practices about their children's Korean-language development. Parents who reported more joint book-reading in Korean were more inclined to

want their children to use the Korean language as their first language in the U.S. ($r = .558$, $p < .05$).

Table 11. Correlations among Items of Parental Thoughts and Practices in the Group of Parents with an English-Dominant Child

		I read books to my child in Korean
I want my child to use Korean language as his/her first language while living in the U.S.	Correlation Coefficient	.558(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007
	N	22

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Follow-up Analysis Results

Independent-samples tests were conducted, according to demographic factors, to evaluate the differences between total scores in parental thoughts or practices about their children's language development. On average, parents who sent their children to Korean language class differed significantly from the rest of the parents in their total scores of parental thoughts about their children's Korean-language development ($z = -2.068$, $p < .05$). Figure 3 shows that the respondents with high scores, who thought seriously about Korean-language development and considered it to be important, were more inclined to send their child to Korean-language class.

Table 12. Mean Ranks and Test Statistics of Parental Thoughts about Their Children's Korean-Language Development Depending on the Child's Attendance at Korean Language Class

Ranks

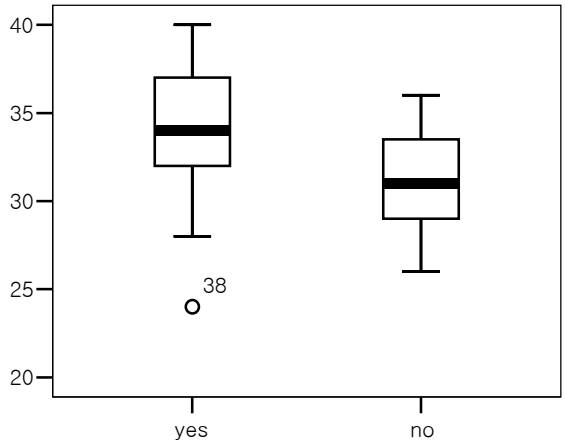
	Child's attendance at Korean-language class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Total Scores of Thoughts about Korean-Language Development	Yes	35	23.89	836.00
	No	8	13.75	110.00
	Total	43		

Test Statistics (b)

	Total Scores of Thoughts about Korean-Language Development
Mann-Whitney U	74.000
Wilcoxon W	110.000
Z	-2.068
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.039
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.039(a)
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.038
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.019
Point Probability	.001

a. Not corrected for ties.
b. Grouping Variable: Child's attendance at Korean-language class

Figure 3. Distributions of Parental Thoughts Scores about Their Children's Korean-Language Development Depending on the Child's Attendance at Korean Language Class



Scores about parental practices concerning English-language development differed significantly, depending on the respondent's dominant language at home ($z = -2.452$, $p < .05$). Not surprisingly, English-dominant parents provided their children with more practices concerning English-language development than did the Korean-dominant parents.

Table 13. Mean Ranks and Test Statistics of Parental Practices for Their Children's English-Language Development Depending on the Parent's Dominant Language Spoken at Home

Ranks

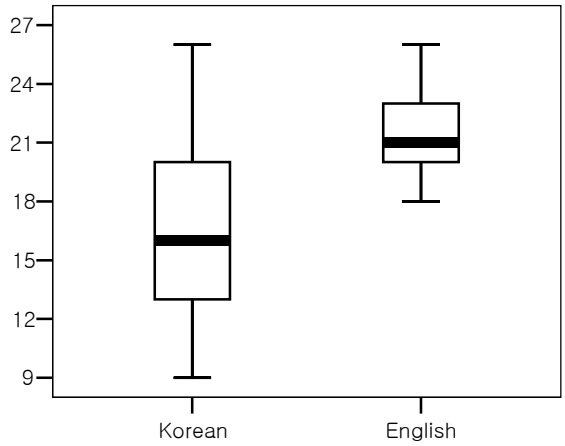
	Parent's dominant language spoken at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Total Scores of Practices for English-Language Development	Korean	38	20.30	771.50
	English	5	34.90	174.50
	Total	43		

Test Statistics (b)

	Total Scores of Practices for English-Language Development
Mann-Whitney U	30.500
Wilcoxon W	771.500
Z	-2.452
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.014
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.011(a)
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.011
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.006
Point Probability	.000

a. Not corrected for ties.
b. Grouping Variable: Parent's dominant language spoken at home

Figure 4. Distributions of Parental Practices Scores for Their Children's English-Language Development Depending on the Parent's Dominant Language Spoken at Home



Contrary to initial assumptions, there was no relationship between a child's age, birth order, or the parents' length of U.S. residency and the total scores of parental thoughts and practices. However, according to Table 14, the child's birth order was significantly associated with individual item scores of parental thoughts and practices concerning their children's Korean-language development. Parents with a firstborn child were more inclined to expect their child to read and write as well in Korean as native Koreans. They also tended to speak more slowly and accurately in Korean and read books to their firstborn child in Korean.

Table 14. Significant Relationships between the Child's Birth Order and Items

		Child's birth order
I expect my child to read and write Korean language as well as native Korean speakers.	Correlation Coefficient	-.431(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
	N	43
When my child cannot understand my Korean language, I say it again slowly and accurately in Korean.	Correlation Coefficient	-.316(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.039
	N	43
I read books to my child In Korean.	Correlation Coefficient	-.378(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012
	N	43

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Since the child's dominant language spoken at home was the most considerable variable in the current study, it was examined for significant associations with other independent variables. First, the Mann-Whitney Test showed a significant difference regarding the child's age depending on the child's dominant language spoken at home ($z = -2.879$, $p < .05$), as seen in Table 15. Older children were more inclined to use English dominantly at home as well as outside the home, while the mean age of Korean-dominant children and English-dominant children at home was very different (about 52 months for Korean-dominant children and about 63 months for English-dominant children).

Table 15. Mean Ranks and Test Statistics of Child's Age

Ranks

	Child's dominant language spoken at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Child's age (month)	Korean	21	16.38	344.00
	English	22	27.36	602.00
	Total	43		

Test Statistics (a)

	Child's age (month)
Mann-Whitney U	113.000
Wilcoxon W	344.000
Z	-2.879
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.003
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.002
Point Probability	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Child's dominant language spoken at home

Table 16 shows that parental length of residency was significantly different for the two groups ($z = -3.662$, $p < .05$). The longer parents had lived in the U.S., the more they tended to have an English-dominant child.

Table 16. Mean Ranks and Test Statistics of Parental Length of U.S. Residency

Ranks

	Child's dominant language spoken at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Parent's length of U.S. residency	Korean	21	15.24	320.00
	English	22	28.45	626.00
	Total	43		

Test Statistics (a)

	Parent's length of U.S. residency
Mann-Whitney U	89.000
Wilcoxon W	320.000
Z	-3.662
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.000
Point Probability	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Child's dominant language spoken at home

However, contrary to initial expectations, no relationship was found among several independent variables and a child's dominant language spoken at home. First, there was no association between dominant language spoken at home and birth order. Second, children's dominant language was not related to attending Korean language classes. In order for that relationship to be significant relationship, children who attended Korean language school had to also speak Korean dominantly at home. Possible reasons for this relationship will be discussed in the next section.

CHAPTER Ⅴ

DISCUSSION

Results of the current survey show no difference in the total scores of parental thoughts about Korean-language development between two groups of parents (parents with a Korean-dominant child and with an English-dominant child). Both groups showed higher mean scores in relation to Korean-language development than English-language development. On average, parents in this study tended to more highly value, and give greater consideration to, their children's Korean-language development than their English-language development, regardless of their children's dominant language spoken at home. However, regarding their thoughts about English-language development, parents of an English-dominant child tended to show significantly higher scores than parents of a Korean-dominant child.

Scores about practices for their children's language development were significantly different between the two groups of parents. While the group with a Korean-dominant child received higher scores in relation to Korean-language development, the group with an English-dominant child reported more frequent practices regarding English-language development. These results seem to support previous studies which found that children's first-language proficiency is related to parental use of that language (Portes & Hao, 1998; Hinton, 1999; Kondo, 1998; Cho & Krashen, 2000). Daily conversations and joint book-reading with parents were particularly indicated as significantly influential upon children's dominant language use at home. Interestingly, there was no difference between the two groups of parents in reading books to their children in English. However, parents who read

books more frequently in Korean were more inclined to have a Korean-dominant child. This result might be related to predominant English practices outside the home; that is, the children could have enough experiences with English from sources in addition to their parent(s). However, the most important providers of Korean-language practices might be the parents, whose encouragement or reinforcement of their children's language use seemed to be associated with their child's language achievement in this study.

In the group with a Korean-dominant child, a positive relationship was found between parental thoughts and their reported practices about Korean-language development. The more parents valued their children's Korean-language development, the more frequently they provided practices in Korean. The fewer concerns about Korean-language development parents had, the less frequently they supported it. This relationship supported the results of other studies that indicated an association among parental beliefs, perceptions, attitudes and behaviors (Curran, Martinez, Greenstein & Diaz, 2005; Shin, 2005).

However, in the group of parents with a Korean-dominant child, no relationship was found between parental thoughts and reported practices in relation to their children's English-language development. Although these parents generally valued their children's learning English, some actively supported the language use and others did not. The reasons for these differences remain unknown; further exploration may require additional supporting data such as interviews or observation. Nonetheless, the following interpretations are worthy of discussion.

First, parents might agree that, while living in America, their children have the option of developing English at any time. Therefore, because all of the parents answered that they want their children to speak, read, and write English, just as well as native English speakers do,

they might expect their children to learn English easily and quickly in an English-dominant society. Second, when parents provide fewer practices for their children's English development, it could be related to their own lack of English proficiency. Or perhaps these parents might not need to use English with their children at home, because of the children's high Korean proficiency.

In the group with an English-dominant child, there was no relationship between parental thoughts and reported practices concerning their children's language development in either Korean or English. According to the survey results, even though these parents regarded their children's Korean-language development as strongly as those with a Korean-dominant child did, some of them supported their children's Korean-language learning and others did not. There could be several reasons for this discrepancy.

First, because of their children's English preferences, some parents might not be able to provide their children with sufficient practices in Korean. According to Kim (1981), some Korean immigrant children encouraged each other to use English because they recognized that English has higher status than Korean in the linguistic hierarchy. In another study, some English-dominant children were less interested in learning Korean because of its lack of relevance in American society. These children also related speaking Korean to their low linguistic and cultural identity status. They even thought of their first language as English rather than Korean, which they understood as their parents' mother tongue (Shin, 2005). In this study, when their children showed negative attitudes or less motivation toward Korean language use, some parents reported low scores in their Korean-language practices. In addition, their children's lack of Korean proficiency could affect limited parental practices in Korean.

The group with an English-dominant child valued their children's English-language development more than the group with a Korean-dominant child did. Still, some of them supported their children's English-language use although others did not. This difference could be related to a gap in English proficiency between these parents and their children, who could experience a variety of English practices outside the home such as recognizing signs or boards, reading books, watching TV, and interacting with other English-speakers. For their part, some parents might experience limitations in providing their children with appropriate English practices because of their lack of English proficiency, just as parents who use English as their dominant language at home might provide their children with more support for using English than Korean.

The follow-up analysis showed a significant relationship between the child's age and the child's dominant language spoken at home. As per other studies, the older the children were, the more English-dominant they were. Entering school usually provides children with a myriad of opportunities to learn English, including interactions with other English-speakers and participation in a variety of activities in English. Thus, according to Shin (2002a), second- and third-born children tended to learn English earlier than their older sibling(s), partly due to close interactions with older sibling(s) who have already become familiar with English at school.

However, in the current study, the children's dominant language spoken at home was not significantly related to their birth order. While some firstborn children were mostly speaking English, second-born or third-born children were still using Korean language. Since the children of all respondents were from 3 to 7 years of age, some younger siblings might have more time with parents who mostly use Korean language than with people who speak

English, including their older siblings. Therefore, these results could be affected by demographic and/or geographic characteristics (i.e. a relatively small Korean population). Older siblings who were not school-age children could learn English in their daily life by interacting with English-speakers. When the firstborn children in this study developed their English proficiency earlier than firstborns in metropolitan areas that have larger Korean populations, this may indicate that birth order is not an important indicator of children's dominant language spoken at home. A lack of supporting data may also be a factor. According to the demographic information provided by respondents, the percentage of firstborn children (72%) was much higher than the percentage of other groups of children, including younger siblings. If the study is populated with evenly distributed groups of children, results can differ depending on birth order.

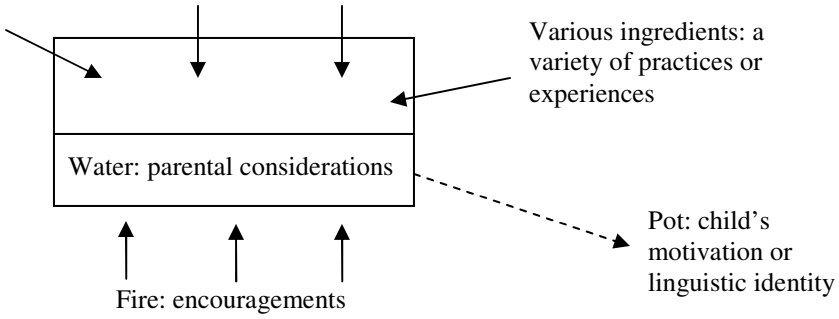
No relationship was found between a child's dominant language and attendance at Korean language classes. There are two possible reasons for this. First, some parents with a Korean-dominant child may not enroll their children in a Korean language class, because they can teach their children Korean themselves. Because the children of respondents were young, these parents might think that they can effectively develop their children's Korean later on, when they really want to learn it. Second, some parents with an English-dominant child may enroll the child in Korean language class when they themselves have difficulty teaching Korean. To analyze real examples of attendance at Korean language class and how they relate to the issues raised in this study, more supporting data such as in-depth interviews would be needed. In future studies, parental thoughts about the effectiveness of attending Korean language classes and other relevant matters should be explored, in order to gain new knowledge about children's heritage-language development or mother-tongue maintenance.

Summary

In this study, the more parents used child-directed Korean speech and the more frequently they provided positive reinforcement about their child's Korean-language use, the more their children used the Korean language dominantly at home. These results agree with Vygotsky's perceptions that parents can play an important roll in enlarging their child's Zone of Proximal Development through appropriate scaffolding.

In order to promote children's language development, appropriate and sufficient practices should be supported, as well as parental considerations and values about the use of a particular language (Galper, Wigfield & Seefeldt, 1997; Senechal & LeFevre, 2002; Stipek, Milburn, Clements & Daniels, 1992). Just as making soup requires water, various ingredients, and heat, parental considerations about language learning, a variety of practices or experiences, and encouragement to use the language are needed for children to develop a language. The pot is the children's motivation to learn the language or develop a linguistic identity. Figure 5 shows parental roles in fostering their children's language development.

Figure 5. Parents' Roles in Promoting Their Children's Language Development



Limitations of the Study

This quantitative study has several limitations. First, it is not possible to generalize the findings because of the small sample size. The subjects were recruited from a limited Korean-American community, specifically two Korean language schools and one Sunday school in a Korean church. Because the target areas had a relatively small Korean population, it was difficult to find a sufficient number of parents who met the research criteria. Therefore, the results may not directly apply to other Korean immigrants, for example in metropolitan areas with large Korean populations such as New York or Los Angeles.

Second, because of the homogeneity of the participants, this study was only able to effectively examine certain correlations among factors. Some demographic information, such as income and educational level, was not distributed evenly.

Third, lack of supporting data precluded this study from considering the child's dominant language spoken outside the home as well as within the home. In the pilot study, a mother of four said that her 5-year-old daughter is a balanced Korean-English bilingual who uses Korean at home and English elsewhere, including at school. However, in order to obtain clear results from the available subject pool, the current study depended only on the child's dominant language spoken at home. Actually, in the current study, 6 parents reported that their children seemed to be Korean-English bilinguals who use the appropriate language according to places or situations. Therefore, in future studies with more subjects, parents could be divided into at least three groups according to their children's language preferences at home or outside the home.

Fourth, some demographic data such as the child's age, gender, the participants' employment conditions, yearly income or educational level could be limitations to the extent

that they would be intervening variables. Studies have indicated that children who have linguistic backgrounds other than English often tended to shift their first language to English after entering mainstream schools, showing the loss of their mother tongue with time (Jo, 1999; Shin, 2005). Researchers who examined gender differences in children's language use or development have indicated that girls tend to show easier or faster progress than boys because of biological reasons, such as brain function, and societal reasons such as parental or cultural expectations (Baker, 2000; Litosseliti, 2006; Mullis, Martin, Gonzalez, & Kennedy, 2003). Therefore, a diverse combination of variables should be considered to obtain more meaningful results from this study.

Last, because the collected data was self-reported without corroborating evidence, the results may lack objectivity; to be sure, degrees of parental thoughts about and occasions for practices concerning their children's language development vary in ways that the current study cannot explain. Even though several parents scored 3 on an item, this does not mean that their thoughts or practices were the same. However, item-by-item consistency in an individual's responses was expected, according to the individual's own understanding of the scales. In addition, some objective tests may be needed to support parental reports about their child's current dominant language. Standardized language-proficiency tests for children in both Korean and English could provide enough evidence to identify their dominant language. However, tests with sufficient objectivity have not yet been produced. According to Grosjean (1994), bilinguals are not people who can use two languages as well as native users of each language (speaking, listening, reading, and writing); therefore, it would not be effective to offer the same tests to bilingual children as to their native peers. In addition, the target children in the current study, aged 3 to 7, are not developmentally ready to take such tests.

Implications of the Study

In this study, most parents considered their children's Korean-language development seriously and thought of it as important, regardless of their children's dominant language spoken at home. In other words, even though some respondents have a Korean-dominant child and others have an English-dominant child, there was no significant difference in the way both groups valued their mother tongue. However, the differences in parental practices about language seemed to be significantly involved with their children's dominant language use at home. According to Portes and Hao (2002), second-generation children who use both their home language and English fluently tend to report closer relationships among family members, greater self-esteem, and greater ambitions for school achievement than those who use only the majority language. Therefore, some suggestions are made below for parents who are focusing on their children's mother-tongue maintenance and also wanting them to become balanced bilinguals.

Through the current study, parents may understand that there is a significant association among their thoughts and practices concerning their children's Korean-language development and their children's language achievement in their dominant language. They may also recognize that some children could become Korean-English bilinguals, as most parents expect, while others could become English monolinguals, and that the actual outcome may depend on the frequency of parental practices about both languages. Some parents may be able to apply important practices such as joint book-reading and child-directed speech more appropriately after reading this study. English-dominant parents who lack Korean-language proficiency may consider obtaining help in fostering their children's Korean-English bilingualism or mother-tongue maintenance from grandparents or other family

members who are fluent in Korean. Or they might provide their children with Korean books accompanied by audiotapes so that they can read and listen without adult assistance. However, parents who decide to go about assisting their children's Korean-language acquisition need to choose authentic and meaningful materials that are relevant to their children's real experience as Korean-Americans. Children may develop Korean literacy more effectively when they encounter important cultural values that are also meaningful to their daily lives (Lao, 2004).

According to Wong Filmore (1991), children living in America with parents who use languages other than English often have difficulty communicating well with them, as well as with grandparents and other relatives, because of the loss of their mother tongue. Therefore, immigrant parents should encourage home use of the mother tongue as an asset throughout their children's lives. Parents can model appropriate language use in their mother tongue by speaking accurately and elaborately. A variety of social interactions with other people who are fluent in the mother tongue can also bring out children's motivation and ability to use it.

It is true that immigrant parents may need to make a special effort to develop their own English-language proficiency. Parents who are not fluent in English have an increased likelihood of hindering their children's English-literacy development, because of using unclear grammar and simple words and sentences (NAEYC, 1996). Therefore, parents should consider the best way to appropriately support their children's English-language development. For example, they can provide a sufficient written environment, including English books on tape, and can gain ideas to help their children to expand their English literacy from mainstream schools or communities.

For the second-generation Korean children in the current study, English-language development is an important aspect of living in mainstream society, along with school achievement and relationships with peers and teachers. In addition, Korean-language development can help these children form close relationship with their parents and other Korean-speaking family members, foster recognition of their family culture, and help them establish their identities. Therefore, development of both English and Korean is not a problem or a barrier but rather an essential asset throughout their lives. To foster their children's language development, parents need to play dynamic roles as teachers, supervisors, or even friends. However, as shown in the current study, immigrant Korean parents face some limitations in providing their children with a variety of valuable linguistic practices in both their home language and English. Therefore, because it is not only parents who bear the responsibility for their children's language learning, collaboration among parents, teachers, schools, and communities should be considered. It is my hope that readers of this study will develop efficient strategies to help children who have a non-English home language to flourish in their own language.

APPENDICES

Appendix A:

Survey Questionnaire

Korean Parental Thoughts and Practices about Their Children's Language Development

This survey is part of a research project at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. The purpose of this survey is to explore parental thoughts and practices about their children's language development. It will take 10 to 15 minutes. Your participation is voluntary. Data provided will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for this study only. If you have any concerns or questions, please contact with the researcher at 336-337-7359 or by e-mail, hany0201@hotmail.com. Thank you in advance for your support of this research.

***** Think especially about your 3-to-7-year-old child when you answer.**
If you have two or more children in that age range, think about the youngest child.

1. Thoughts about Language Development

For Items 1-16, CIRCLE the number that best describes your level of agreement with the statement.

1 – Strongly Disagree 2 – Disagree 3 – Unsure 4 – Agree 5 – Strongly Agree

<Korean>

1) I am proud of my child when he/she uses Korean language. 1 2 3 4 5

2) I want my child to use Korean language as his/her first language while living in the U.S. 1 2 3 4 5

3) I believe my child can learn Korean language at any time. 1 2 3 4 5

4) I believe my child's early learning in Korean language will help his/her later Korean language development. 1 2 3 4 5

5) I believe my child's Korean language development will facilitate his/her English development. 1 2 3 4 5

6) I believe my child may forget his/her Korean language if he/she does not use it regularly. 1 2 3 4 5

7) I expect my child to speak Korean language as fluently as native Korean speakers do. 1 2 3 4 5

8) I expect my child to read and write Korean language as well as native Korean speakers. 1 2 3 4 5

<English>

9) I am proud of my child when he/she uses English. 1 2 3 4 5

10) I want my child to use English as his/her first language while living in the U.S. 1 2 3 4 5

11) I believe my child can learn English at any time. 1 2 3 4 5

12) I believe my child's early learning in English will help his/her later English development. 1 2 3 4 5

13) I believe my child's English development will facilitate his/her Korean language development. 1 2 3 4 5

14) I believe my child may forget English, if he/she does not use it regularly. 1 2 3 4 5

15) I expect my child to speak English as fluently as native English speakers do. 1 2 3 4 5

16) I expect my child to read and write English as well as native English speakers. 1 2 3 4 5

2. Practices for Language Development

For Items 17-30, CIRCLE the number that tells us how often you do them.

1 – Hardly ever 2 – Sometimes 3 – Very often 4 – Almost always

<Korean>

17) I speak to my child in Korean, since my child uses Korean language. 1 2 3 4

18) I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in Korean when I do not understand his/her Korean language. 1 2 3 4

19) When my child cannot understand my Korean language, I say it again slowly and accurately in Korean. 1 2 3 4

20) When my child cannot understand my Korean language, I explain it English first and then in Korean. 1 2 3 4

21) I read books to my child in Korean. 1 2 3 4

22) I encourage my child to use mostly Korean language at home. 1 2 3 4

23) I encourage my child to use Korean language when speaking to other Korean people. 1 2 3 4

<English>

24) I speak to my child in English, since my child uses English. 1 2 3 4

25) I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in English when I do not understand his/her English. 1 2 3 4

26) When my child cannot understand my English, I say it again slowly and accurately in English. 1 2 3 4

27) When my child cannot understand my English, I explain it Korean first and then in English. 1 2 3 4

28) I read books to my child in English. 1 2 3 4

29) I encourage my child to use mostly English at home. 1 2 3 4

30) I encourage my child to use English when speaking with other Koreans who speak English. 1 2 3 4

	You	**Your Child**
1. Age	Years old	years months old
2. Gender	☐ Male ☐ Female	☐ Male ☐ Female
3. Birth Place	☐ Korea ☐ U.S.A.	☐ Korea ☐ U.S.A.
4. Dominant Language (spoken at home)	☐ Korean ☐ English	☐ Korean ☐ English
(spoken outside of the home)	☐ Korean ☐ English	☐ Korean ☐ English

5. What is the birth order of the child about whom you responded?

☐ Firstborn ☐ Second-born ☐ Third-born ☐ Fourth-born

6. Does your child take a Korean language class? Yes / No

7. How many years have you stayed in the U.S.?

☐ 3 – 5 years ☐ 6 – 8 years ☐ 9 – 11 years ☐ More than 11 years

8. Your Occupation ex) Housewife, business employee _____

9. Highest Level of Education

☐ Middle school ☐ High school ☐ College ☐ Graduate school

10. Yearly Family Income

☐ Less than $20,000 ☐ $20,000 – $40,000 ☐ $40,001 – $60,000

☐ $60,001 – $80,000 ☐ More than $80,000

If you have any comments or suggestions about this survey, please specify them.

Thank you for your participation in this survey.

Appendix B:

Variables

Id	Id number
tho_k01	I am proud of my child when he/she uses Korean language.
tho_k02	I want my child to use Korean language as his/her first language while living in the U.S.
tho_k03	I believe my child can learn Korean language at any time.
tho_k04	I believe my child's early learning in Korean language will help his/her later Korean language development.
tho_k05	I believe my child's Korean-language development will facilitate his/her English development.
tho_k06	I believe my child may forget his/her Korean language if he/she does not use it regularly.
tho_k07	I expect my child to speak Korean language as fluently as native Korean speakers do.
tho_k08	I expect my child to read and write Korean language as well as native Korean speakers.
tho_e01	I am proud of my child when he/she uses English.
tho_e02	I want my child to use English as his/her first language while living in the U.S.
tho_e03	I believe my child can learn English at any time.
tho_e04	I believe my child's early learning in English will help his/her later English development.
tho_e05	I believe my child's English development will facilitate his/her Korean-language development.
tho_e06	I believe my child may forget English, if he/she does not use it regularly.
tho_e07	I expect my child to speak English as fluently as native English speakers do.
tho_e08	I expect my child to read and write English as well as native English speakers.
pra_k01	I speak to my child in Korean, since my child uses Korean language.
pra_k02	I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in Korean when I do not understand his/her Korean language.
pra_k03	When my child cannot understand my Korean language, I say it again slowly and accurately in Korean.
pra_k04	When my child cannot understand my Korean language, I explain it English first and then in Korean.
pra_k05	I read books to my child in Korean.
pra_k06	I encourage my child to use mostly Korean language at home.
pra_k07	I encourage my child to use Korean language when speaking to other Korean people.
pra_e01	I speak to my child in English, since my child uses English.

pra_e02	I ask my child to repeat what he/she says in English when I do not understand his/her English.
pra_e03	When my child cannot understand my English, I say it again slowly and accurately in English.
pra_e04	When my child cannot understand my English, I explain it Korean first and then in English.
pra_e05	I read books to my child in English.
pra_e06	I encourage my child to use mostly English at home.
pra_e07	I encourage my child to use English when speaking with other Koreans who speak English.
p_age	Parent's age
c_age_m	Child's age (month)
p_gender	Parent's gender
c_gender	Child's gender
p_dom_h	Parent's dominant language spoken at home
p_dom_o	Parent's dominant language spoken outside of the home
c_dom_h	Child's dominant language spoken at home
c_dom_o	Child's dominant language spoken outside of the home
border	Child's birth order
kclass	Child's attendance at Korean language class
livingyr	Parent's length of U.S. residency
occup	Parent's occupation
highedu	Parent's highest level of education
income	Yearly income
tot_tho_k	Total scores of parental thoughts about Korean-language development
tot_tho_e	Total scores of parental thoughts about English-language development
tot_pra_k	Total scores of parents' reported practices for Korean-language development
tot_pra_e	Total scores of parents' reported practices for English-language development

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